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ABSTRACT

The degree of professionalization of the field of higher education was investigated. To determine if higher education possesses unique knowledge and skills, a curriculum analysis was undertaken at Indiana University, Columbia University's Teachers College, and the University of Michigan. Using student transcripts, program handbooks, and university catalogs, attention was focused on four concerns: locus of learning (campus-based or experiential), curriculum content (breadth versus depth), program design (faculty, contractal, or student), and program flexibility (required, distribution, or elective). The results confirm the existence of a core of courses that define the unique skills and knowledge of higher education. A comparison of higher education curricular characteristics to those of other occupations was also undertaken. The findings describe higher education as being more professionalized in terms of curriculum characteristics than the emerging professions of business and library science but less so than law and medicine. The field of higher education appears to have become more professionalized in terms of the maturity of its curriculum vis-a-vis other professions. Information is included on the 10 most frequently taken courses in higher education graduate programs at the three sample universities. Transcript and catalog/student handbook information forms are included. (SW)

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THE PROFESSIONALIZATION OF HIGHER EDUCATION

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Introduction

"In our society, among the more desired and admired statuses is to be a member of a profession" (Becker 1961, p.4). Many students entering college as undergraduates and most continuing on as graduate students regard themselves as being in the process of becoming professionals. In the same vein, members of various occupational groups, having been engaged in an activity for numerous years or having undergone extensive training for that activity, also perceive themselves as having attained the status of professional. Yet, professionalism is built on more than self-designation. The status and rewards of being a professional are so attractive in our society that almost all occupations would like to make claim to professional status (Anderson 1974). It is this very ambition that underlies the development of a profession.

Over the past fifty years preparation for the professions has been the object of considerable speculation. Some of this interest arose from the fallout of an increasingly technological society; much of the interest came from within occupational groups, from members who sought to establish themselves as unique contributors to society. Occupations became increasingly interested in professionalization and in professional preparation.

As applied to our own occupation, the quest for identity and identifying trademarks of professionalization has not gone unaddressed. Higher Education is evolving into a profession in response to a need. The challenge of managing institutions of higher education has not been sufficiently met by part-time activity. As a result, the study of higher education has developed into a scholarly activity conducted not by researchers in associated fields such as sociology but by its own specialists. There has been increasing recognition that managing institutions of higher education requires more than

receipt of a doctorate. Higher educationists have undertaken the study and practice of higher education as a full-time activity (Wilensky 1964).

Since early in the century, Higher Educationists have used professional associations to strengthen the scholarship and status of their occupational activities. Professional associations were formed to protect members and to assist in the clarification of the standards and objectives of the profession's work. Part of the professionals' work, both independently and through the associations, was the examination of the process used to establish membership in the profession.

Like other emerging professionals, Higher Educationists currently face a variety of problems associated with the establishment of their disciplinary "turf." For instance, emerging professionals confront special problems germane to the development of the curriculum of their would-be discipline. Higher Education, like many emerging fields of inquiry, is frequently described as being interdisciplinary, taking theory and its knowledge base from various disciplinary areas and using a variety of methodologies. It is through the encouragement of scholarship and research by the national associations and the continued refinement of instructional courses in higher education institutions that the establishment of the perimeters of Higher Education are to be accomplished.

The defense offered for the absence of clearly defined perimeters is often given as Higher Education's youth, its newly emerging status. It is true that as a field of study Higher Education did not become nationally visible until the growth period of the late 1940s. Another surge of introspection in the early 1960s accompanied the enrollment rise. Studies to date have yet to present conclusive evidence on the status of Higher Education as a discipline or as a profession. However, it is generally agreed that Higher Education Administration is moving toward becoming a

profession. It was the intent of this study to examine that movement by looking at the development of the curriculum as an indicator of the professionalization of the field.

Curriculum as a Measure of Professionalization

For years education theorists have maintained that the outstanding purpose of instruction in institutuions of hieghar education was to convey certain knowledge and skills to students so that they would have the information and competencies necessary to contribute to society in their chosen area of expertise. More recently, scholars have generally acknowledged the existence and importance of the so-called co-curriculum, those developmental or socialization experienes of the educational process that contribute to the successful production of a college graduate or of a graduate student (Becker 1961, Chickering 1974, Astin 1982). In fact, broadly defined, curriculum is the total of the education experience (Conrad 1978). Nonetheless, the presence of a set curriculum in graduate programs of Higher Education, as well as other fields, implies that certain purposes are to be undertaken by instruction, that there are certain skills and knowledge that are to be conveyed, and that there are in existence ways of determining whether purposes are being attained.

Although curricular variety exists from field to field, from institution to institution, those fields of study that are generally regarded as more mature fields--those training professionals, those in which there is an agreed-upon body of knowledge--seem to posess a consistent curriculum. This consistency is normally reflected in the formal recognition of graduates of these fields or by licensing examinations (medicine), bar entrance requirements (law), or program certification or accreditation (business, law, medicine). An agreed-upon body of knowledge as acquired through mastery of

the curriculum can be evaluated, and the student's satisfactory mastery of that curriculum can be certified. While some of this mastery is no doubt a result of socialization or acculturation (Volmer and Mills 1966), much of it is surely curricular content. Specifically, an inquiry into the status of the common curriculum of graduate programs in Higher Education serve two purposes. First, it is informative to examine the content of the curriculum experienced by those persons being trained to administer institutions of higher education and to study higher education as an institution. Second, a comparison of the characteristics of the content of the curricula of Higher Education to those of other professional curricula characteristics can provide a foundation for examining the status of Higher Education as an emerging profession.

Curriculum as a measure of professionalization has not, to date, been examined in the literature. If the indications that the nature and consistency of an occupation's curriculum were regarded as useful measures of professionalization, it seems likely that this approach would have been utilized by researchers interested in the professsions. Regardless, this study attempted to examine this approach, to suggest that curriculum as a measure of professionalization be explored, an approach grounded in the literature. Nevertheless, the lack of the use of curriculum as a measure in the literature is a limiting factor for the study.

In addressing the data of this study, two observationa are relevant. First, because the criteria for describing the characteristics of the curriculum of each occupation vary, a problem of comparability is built into the study. For example, since the evidence for describing the locus of learning for medicine was taken from curricula descriptions and that for Higher Education was taken from transcripts, comparisons were made between formative information (catalogs) and summative information (transcripts).

Additionally, each profession approaches the curriculum of its professions education in a unique way. Direct comparisons cannot be made without the establishment of working definitions common across professions.

Second, even if the characteristics can be compared, they do not present a total experience of the curriculm. Characteristics by themselves are not totally descriptive of curricula content, but they are a beginning.

While in theory and practice curriculm has limitations as a measure of professionalization, it is an approach to measuring the professionalization of an occupation. The results of this study, then, are to be viewed as providing a framework by which a curriculum can be analyzed for the purposes of describing the consistency of content, a consistency that indicates the maturity of a profession's education.

Data Collection and Instrumentation

To describe both past and current emphasis in the selected professions' education curricula, data grids were adapted from a previous curriculum study (Blackburn et al. 1976). These grids were used to tabulate 1972-73 and 1982-83 catalog, student program handbook, and transcript information from each sample program. The following items were tabulated:

From transcripts:

- Total hours taken
- Total research hours
- Hours in breadth
- Hours in depth
- Time frame

From catalogs and program description literature:

- Total program hours
- Of courses noted, which are required or recommended

- Of these, which are in Higher Education
- Of required or recommended courses not in Higher Education, what is area
- Breakdown of requirements according to area

Figures 1 and 2 are shown here.

[INSERT FIG. 1 AND 2 ABOUT HERE]

The Sample

A theoretical sample of three leading centers/programs in Higher Education was selected for the purpose of this study. All three belong to Dressell and Mayhew's (1974) Type I program and were selected from Type I institutions based on the following criteria: (1) centers are nationally oriented, maintaining a national perspective on the study of higher education; (2) the faculty members have national visibility; (3) the center/program generates significant research in the field; and (4) the students experience a kind of socialization believed to be representative of the professions education in Higher Education. Based on these criteria, the following programs were selected for the sample: Indiana University; Teachers College, Columbia University; and the University of Michigan.

The Model

In order to analyze the characteristics of the curriculum of Higher Education graduate programs of study, an analytical framework adopted from Conrad (1978) was utilized. Building in part on models of curriculum analysis from earlier studies, Conrad developed a model by which curricular characteristics can be examined along four continua: locus of learning, curriculum content, design of program, and flexibility of program. These continua provided and analytical framework for examining the characteristics

Date_____

Institution_____

Number of Hours Taken_____

Student Identification_____

1. BREADTH

Core Courses in Higher Education

Total Hours:

Percentage of Total Program:

2. DEPTH

Additional Courses in Higher Education

Total Hours:

Percentage of Total Program:

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3. EDUCATION COURSES

Field Experience Hours:

Percentage of Total Program:

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4. OUT-OF-EDUCATION COURSES

Total Hours:

Percentage of Total Program

5. RESEARCH

Independent Study:

Dissertation:

Total Breadth Hours:

Total Breadth Percentage:

(B = 1 + 3 + 4)

Total Depth Hours:

Total Depth Percentage:

(D = 2 + 5)

Figure 1. Transcript Information

University_____

Semester ____ Quarter____ Other____

Time Frame_____

Course/Area	Required	Recommended	Number of Hours	Percentage of Program
Higher Education Core				
Education Courses				
Out-of-Education Courses				
Seminars				
Research				
Internships/Practicum/ Field Experience				
Dissertation				
Total Minimum Program Hours				

Figure 2. Catalog and Student Handbook Information

of the curriculum vis-a-vis how the knowledge and skills aspect of a professions education is dispersed through the curriculum. These continua were applicable to this study in that they isolate the central characteristics of knowledge and skills as identified in the literature on professions education. The conjoining of these continua with the literature on the mature professions yielded the following analytical framework:

1. Locus of learning: Campus-based learning--experiential learning. Although traditionally the majority of the curriculum content has been carried out through classroom instruction, there recently has been a movement in many curricula toward the inclusion of more experiential learning. The mature professions have emphasized a balance in this continuum; more than half of the content in a mature professions curriculum is dispersed through classroom learning. The position occupied along this continuum of the locus of learning by graduate programs in Higher Education may be compared with the balance taken by the mature professions.
2. Curriculum content: Breadth--depth. The second continuum was examined to determine the extent to which the curriculum is characterized as either generalist or specialist in nature. The mature professions strike a balance between specialized (depth) skills and broad-based knowledge (Schein 1972). The position of Higher Education along this continuum was compared with the balance of the mature professions.
3. Design of program: Faculty--contractal--student. The degree of student versus faculty control over the curriculum was examined with the third continuum. The locus of control of Higher Education curricula was compared with those of the mature professions, where faculty prescription is found.

4. Flexibility of program: Required--distribution--elective. The position occupied along the continuum of flexibility was examined. The degree of restrictiveness of the curriculum of Higher Education was compared with those of the mature professions, which are restrictive.

This framework for analysis enabled the researcher to examine the characteristics of the dispersal of the knowledge and skills through the curriculum of graduate programs in Higher Education and, in turn, to place the profession along an overall contiuum of professionalism in terms of the curriculum.

Findings

Core Courses

Based on the sample of three institutions, a summary of the ten most frequently taken courses in Higher Education graduate programs is presented in Table 1. Courses are grouped into areas of similar content based on title and content as described in each institution's catalog. For the 1972-73 graduates, Seminar, Organization and Administration, Finance, the Community and Junior College, Research, Higher Education in America, Curriculum, the College Student, Introduction to Higher Education, and History and Philosophy of Education were the most frequently taken courses. For 1982-83 graduates, courses in Seminar, Organization and Administration, Finance, History and Philosphy of Education, Higher Education in America, Curriculum, the Community and Junior College, Academic Problems, the College Stuident, and College Teaching were most frequently taken. Eight courses persisted across the two time frames of the study: Seminar, Organization and Administration, Finance, History and Philosophy, Higher Education in America, Curriculum, the Community and Junior College, and the College Student.

Table 1. The Ten Most Frequently Taken Courses in Higher Education, by Rank Order, for Sample Institutions for 1972-73 and 1982-83 Graduates.

Rank	Course Title	Frequencies for 1972-73 Graduates	Rank	Course Title	Frequencies for 1982-83 Graduates
1	Seminar	55	1	Seminar	97
2	Organization and Administration	36	2	Organization and Administration	42
3	Finance	27	3	Finance	39
4	Community/Junior College	18	4	History and Philosophy	35
5	Research*	16	5	Higher Education in America	25
5	Higher Education in America	16	6	Curriculum	24
7	Curriculum	11	7	Community/Junior College	21
8	College Student	10	8	Academic Problems	14
9	Introduction to Higher Education	9	9	College Student	12
10	History and Philosophy	6	10	College Teaching	9

* Excludes dissertation registration

Based on the assumption that course-taking behavior can measure and describe the common curriculum of a professions education, the evidence presented here establishes that there is significant agreement on the courses found in the core of graduate programs in Higher Education. This core, described best by the five ranks of most frequently taken courses as identified above, has persisted across two time periods, through two courses identified as core courses in 1972-73 (Research and the Community/Junior College) have been replaced by two lower ranking courses in the most recent perido. In the context of these overall findings, it is illuminating to discuss the relative rankings of individual courses across the two time periods.

Seminar, Organization and Administration, and Finance courses have occupied the first three ranks over the two time frames of the study. The fourth rank has shifted from coursework in the Community College during the 1972-73 time period to coursework in History and Philosophy of Education for the 1982-83 period. Courses in Higher Education in America have persisted at the fifth rank, and Curriculum work ranks sixth and seventh in frequency of courses taken over the time frames of the study. Courses on the College Student occupy ranks 8 and 9, respectively, in 1972-73 and 1982-83.

While coursework in Research and introductory survey did not appear in the latter time frame of the study, there has been little shift in the rankings of the most frequently taken courses occupying the first seven ranks across the two time frames. This set of courses can be said to describe the unique skills and knowledge of Higher Education as based on the literature of this study. This core, as reflected on transcripts from the three sample institutions for the 1982-83 time frame, now consists of coursework in Seminar, Organization and Administration, Finance, History and Philosophy of Education, Curriculum, and the Community and Junior College. This core of

six courses is similar to that described by Dressel and Mayhew in 1974. They reported that core requirements in Higher Education usually involved three to six courses. Additionally, they reported a typical core as being composed of a Foundations course (Introduction, Nature, Issues), Student Personnel Work, Community College, and Administration. Courses in Teaching, Curriculum, and History often were found in cores.

The findings of this study do not disagree with Dressel and Mayhew's findings save for the presence of the finance course and the lesser emphasis given to student personnel work as found in this study. It seems likely that the emergence of the finance course is associated with the increased emphasis on fiscal planning for institutions of higher education and the development of finance experts within the ranks of the Higher Education professoriate. It is possible that the inconsistency of student personnel work is a result of the separation of that concentration from Higher Education as was suggested by Dressel and Mayhew (1974). Finally, the emergence of finance coursework and the shifting of coursework away from community college and student personnel work possibly reflect the changing labor market emphasis for graduates of Higher Education programs.

Locus of Learning

Student transcripts provided the information used to address the issue of balance between classroom instruction and experiential learning in Higher Education curricula.

Table 2 compares the proportion of coursework taken in traditional classroom settings versus experiential learning settings as averaged for the total sample. No significant changes were observed from 1972-73 to 1982-83.

[INSERT TABLE 2 ABOUT HERE]

Table 2. Comparison Between Classroom and Experiential Learning Settings in Program as Reflected in Transcripts (Sample Average), 1972-73 and 1982-83.

1972-73

Average Total Program Hours Per Student	Average Percent of Program Hours as Experiential Learning	Average Percent of Program Hours as Classroom Instruction
70.8	2.9	97.1
(N = 32)	(N =15)	

1982-83

Average Total Program Hours Per Student	Average Percent of Program Hours as Experiential Learning	Average Percent of Program Hours as Classroom Instruction
76.1	2.5	97.5
(N = 29)	(N = 12)	

* N is number of students involved

Overall, the data demonstrate that the curriculum of Higher Education is characterized by an emphasis on classroom instruction as the locus of learning. Nearly all of the program hours are in the traditional learning setting; less than 3 percent of the programs in either 1972-73 or 1982-83 was devoted to learning in an experiential setting. In short, the curriculum in Higher Education is very traditional in terms of its locus of learning with over 97 percent of the coursework occurring in the classroom.

Curriculum Content

Transcripts provided the data used to address curriculum content, focusing on the emphasis placed on coursework in breadth versus depth in graduate programs in Higher Education. As recorded on Figure 1, breadth was defined as the sum of three areas of courswork: core, as described above, in Higher Education; education electives not in Higher Education; and electives taken out of the College of Education. Depth was defined as the sum of two areas: courses in Higher Education outside the core and research work including the dissertation hours. Courses outside of education which dealt with topics relevant to Higher Education such as organizational theory and management were treated as coursework in breadth since their intent is to provide a broad overview. The data are reported in percentages.

The difficulty in composing these definitions may be seen by reflecting on a kind of "devil's advocate" position. For example, if an individual were "majoring" in organization and administration and that core were organization and administration, curriculum, finance, and history of higher education, whether these courses in each case represent breadth as opposed to depth is debabable. Assuming a career in academic administration, knowledge of finance and curriculum might be viewed as depth whereas the history course could be classified as a breadth course. Further, regarding electives,

suppose that a student elected the following courses: complex organizations in sociology, political theory in political science, an advanced management course, and several research classes. The first three of these might properly be considered depth rather than breadth for a person planning a career in academic administration. Such problems are inherent in curricular classification.

A composite rendering of the balance between breadth and depth coursework in Higher Education graduate programs is displayed on Table 3. As shown in the table, there has been a 6 percent shift over the time frames of the study toward an emphasis on coursework in depth. For programs completed in 1972-73, the balance was on the average 54.2 percent toward breadth work, 45.8 percent for coursework in depth. For programs in 1982-83, breadth work composed 48.2 percent of the program; 51.8 percent of the averaged programs was coursework in depth.

Course-taking behavior as reflected through the data indicates that there has been a near balance in coursework in breadth with that of depth over time. Currently, programs in Higher Education seem to be shifting slightly their emphasis toward coursework in depth. The graduate program in Higher Education as described by the sample institutions is divided between coursework in depth and in breadth approximately in half. Students elect coursework from areas in breadth with about the same frequency as they select work in depth. They experience a broad base of coursework upon which they build a substantial depth coursework experience in their professions education.

[INSERT TABLE 3 ABOUT HERE]

Table 3. Average Percentage of Coursework in Breadth Versus Depth in 1972-73 and in 1982-83 at Sample Institutions.

	1972		1982	
	Breadth	Depth	Breadth	Depth
Michigan	53.7	46.3	34.0	66.0
Columbia	57.6	42.4	54.6	45.4
Indiana	51.4	48.6	55.9	44.1
Composite	54.2	45.8	48.2	51.8

Design and Flexibility of Program

The information recorded in Figure 2 was used to respond to the issue focusing on the amount of faculty prescription of graduate programs in Higher Education. The information came from program handbooks and catalogs of the institutions sampled. These data address continua 4 and 5 of the Conrad model.

Based on information from the institutions sampled, it appears that graduate programs in Higher Education are relatively prescribed by faculty either through department or college distribution requirements or through recommendations on courses used to fulfill these distributions. However, this conclusion is based on formative information provided in program handbooks for 1972-73 and 1982-83. In practice, as summarized on the transcripts reviewed in addressing previous research questions, it was observed that a higher degree of flexibility existed in practice than in theory. Not only were there some graduates whose total number of hours were less than program minimum, there also exist several examples of variation from distribution requirements as reflected in course-taking behavior. It is obvious that although the majority of students graduating from programs in Higher Education in 1972-73 and in 1982-83 at the institutions sampled fulfilled the general sense of program requirements in terms of distribution and hour requirements, a great deal of flexibility existed in practice.

Based on an analysis of program handbooks and college catalogs, programs in Higher Education are designed by faculty at least in terms of the general area requirements. Some flexibility exists within these areas, but in general graduate programs in Higher Education are prescribed by the faculty.

The Continua: Rationale and Evidence for Placement

In order to provide a framework for interpreting the findings, the results were compared to descriptions of other professions education curricula. Theoretical samples from four fields of study were drawn for comparative purposes. The disciplines or fields of study were library science, law, medicine, and business (accounting programs at the undergarduate and MBA programs at the graduate level). Law and medicine are generally regarded as mature professions in the literature; business and library science were chosen as contrasting cases since there is substantial and increasing interest in their emergence as professions as indicated in the literature.

The method used to obtain information about curricula as they are described by the continua (Conrad 1978) used in this study is straightforward. For law and medicine, catalogs from programs at the institutions sampled for this study were surveyed. It was assumed that professions education across disciplines in the same institution would reflect similar philosophies (Davidson 1953). Where no program was offered, a national reference source was consulted such as the AMA Curriculum Committee's yearly report for medicine, or, in the case of law, law librarians were surveyed in order to obtain a consensus on program content. Where applicable, these two techniques also were used as a secondary source for placement of the curricula along the continua. In business, the American Assembly of Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB) accreditation standards were used as the primary source for placement of curricula along the continua. As a secondary authority, a dean of a school of business also was interviewed. For librarians, American Library Association accreditation standards were reviewed. Additionally, three librarians with accreditation experience were interviewed. The placement of these four fields of study

along the four continua reflects the synthesis of this research effort.

For the purposes of this study, the distinction between classroom and experiential learning is slightly modified. Classroom instruction which includes laboratory, demonstration, and observation work is carried out under direct supervision. Experiential or field work is carried out under general supervision, often without a supervisor or instructor present. This distinction enables the criteria to be compared across occupations since the evidence varies from occupation to occupation.

Medicine

Medical college curricula have become fairly standardized; the Flexner report at the turn of the century helped to encourage the medical profession's control over training for that profession. The development of the scientific base of medicine also played a notable role in this standardization (Hughes et al. 1973), and the basic framework of medical training has not been altered significantly since the reforms resulting from the Flexner report.

This standardization was confirmed by sampling medical college curricula. This review of selected medical college curricula found that in pre-internship work, the course work of medical education dealing with introductory and basic survey information comprises 42 percent of the total curriculum. These introductory courses provide the knowlege base of the profession, the breadth upon which attitudes and specializations are laid. The remainder of the pre-internship curriculum is devoted to in-depth exposure to the various specialties of the profession, often called clerkships. While this study acknowledges that most of this clerkship phase involves direct observation, experiential learning in terms of the first continuum of the model used in this study, the clerkship has been regarded as

demonstration, part of classroom instruction and learning. Therefore, in regard to the first of the continua, locus of learning, medical training has taken a traditional position on the continuum, emphasizing the classroom instruction mode as the means of dispersal of knowledge and skills.

Here the first indication of some problem of face validity arises. The common perception of medical education probably is that it is one of the most experienced based professional study programs. However, due to the operational definition used and the limitation of pre-internship education, medicine is viewed herein as non-experiential.

For the second continuum, curriculum content, this professions education has struck a balance on a near fifty-fifty distribution between breadth and depth. Forty-two percent of the curriculum is devoted to breadth; the remainder is composed of course work in depth. However, students may elect to broaden their base of knowledge rather than choose specialties.

In two-thirds of the medical college curricula examined, electives were part of the curriculum. Only 5 percent of the curriculum can be determined by the student (outside of the medical field). Only a fourth of the curricula has stated requirements of "humanities elective." The vast majority of electives were choices from within clerkships, other specialties of medicine students may choose to explore. Electives generally occupy about half of the curriculum. However, there exists no real elective mode to medical education in terms of balancing the exact knowledge and skills of the profession with the knowledge base of another discipline or field. In short, medical professions education is highly restricted in regard to the fourth continuum.

The third continuum, purposely examined last, overrides the fourth. The design of the curricula and the flexibility of the curricula are both controlled by the faculty, especially in terms of the responsibility of

preparing students for licensing. Even the presence of electives does not significantly shift the balance on these last continua much toward student control or toward flexibility. The profession exerts substantial control over the knowledge base of the profession in medical education in terms of the manner in which it is dispersed.

In summary, the evidence suggests that medial curricula as described by the Conrad model would fall into the following distributions:

1. Locus of Learning: Classroom instruction is the traditional locus of dispersal of knowledge in medical curricula. Nearly all pre-internship work in medical education is conducted through lectures, which are illustrated by observations and also involve demonstrations. Both demonstrations and observations are regarded as classroom experience for the purposes of this study.
2. Curriculum Content: The curriculum of medical education is distributed nearly equally between breadth and depth. Forty-two percent of the curriculum is devoted to breadth coursework while the remainder is given over the coursework in depth.
3. Design of Program: Since only 5 percent of the curriculum can be determined in terms of non-medical courses by the student, the program in medicine is strongly under the control of the faculty.
4. Flexibility of Program: Following the logic of the distribution along continua three, medical curricula are not flexible since there is very little choice of coursework outside medicine (less than 5 percent).

Law

Although law schools are not as closely controlled as medical schools, they have concentrated around one pattern of training (Thorne 1973). Both

curricula and teaching methods are uniform and in general have not been changed much since the late 1800s; in addition, length and sequence are currently homogenous, and specializations have generally been avoided. Specialization does, however, become evident in practice. Carlin (1966) found lawyers' specializations followed a social stratification pattern. Twenty-one percent of the lawyers in his study specialized in large business and industrial clients whose contacts with courts were on the federal level. The other lawyers in his study became increasingly more generalist in the nature of their practice as the social status of their clientele declined; the lawyers with the least affluent and lowest-status clients tended to practice individually or in small firms.

As the law becomes more complex, specialization in practice is becoming more common and desirable. The American Association of Law Schools' curriculum committee has suggested changing the curriculum to reflect the philosophy of medical colleges. Two years of a standardized curriculum would become the basic professional degree. Specialization would be conducted through the third year of study; such a system also would provide for training in research and teaching leading to the doctorate (Thorne 1973).

Even though discussion of reform is commonplace, the curricula of law schools remain fairly rigid. A sampling of law school curricula through catalogs reveals the following requirements for the professional degree: three years (six semesters) are required for residence; the total number of hours required for the degree averages 87.5 credit hours; of these hours, 37.5 percent are required, and all of these latter hours are to be taken in the first year. The first year curriculum is composed of seven courses. The content, texts, and method of instruction in these courses are highly standardized.

Therefore, the evidence suggests that law school curricula compare with the continua of the Conrad model in the following distributions:

1. Locus of learning: Classroom instruction is emphasized in law school curricula. While moot court is part of the advanced (second and third years) curricula, the mainstay of legal education is traditional classroom instruction.
2. Curriculum content: The curriculum of law schools can be viewed as providing programs balancing 37.5 percent in breadth and 62.5 percent in depth, with the former percentage reflecting the first year required curriculum. However, much of the literature on legal education suggests that only in a few schools does any real specialization occur before graduation (Thorne 1973). Accordingly, this study assumes that the curricula of law schools emphasize breadth rather than depth. Here another potential differnece in judgment may arise--the question of common perception versus operational definition. In the view of some, legal education may be seen as narrow in that the legal curriculum focuses almost exclusively on the law. However, as viewed from the operational definition, legal education is seen as quite broad.
3. Design of the program: Following the logic applied to the previous continua, the design of the program in law schools is controlled by the faculty to the extent of the first-year curriculum (37.5 percent). Students may select the content of their advanced curricula, although the total length of the program is controlled by the faculty.
4. Flexibility of the program: Law school curricula, again based on the logic of the previous statements, can be described as fairly heavily required (37.5 percent). Distribution requirements do not

exist as such, though it can be assumed that certain distribution is suggested by the content of the bar examination.

Library Science

Professional librarian preparation also focuses on the various ends of the training. Specialization generally exists in one of four areas: academic, public, school, or special collections. Within the specialization, the pattern of the curricula remains consistent. Certainly, the role of accreditation of programs is significant here. The dispersal of the unique knowledge and skills of librarianship through the curriculum can be described as follows vis-a-vis the Conrad continua:

1. Locus of learning: Most curricula follwed the traditional dispersal method of classroom instruction. Much of the survey course work involved actual hands-on experience with the tools and technology of the professions, but in general this is not considered field work but rather demonstration. Few programs require internships (Grattan 1984). In library science another possible objection to the operational definition occurs. What is "experience" to one profession may be seen in a somewhat different light in another. The "experience" of fields like library science, medical technology, chemistry, engineering, and architecture may be precisely the kind of experience gained in regular classrooms and laboratories. Yet, these educational approaches are not considered as experiential under the operational definition.
2. Curriculum content: Of the thirty-six hours required for the professional degree, 75-83 percent is concerned with course work in breadth. The programs allow for only one or two second courses in any given area of study.

3. Design of program: National accreditation of graduate programs severly limits student choice. Approximately 17 percent of a given professions education experience can be described as student determined by elective selection. Additionally, it is generally understood that these electives will be in the field. Students desiring to develop an expertise outside library science are encouraged to take a second master's rather than to incorporate course work into the M.L.S. (Grattan 1984).
4. Flexibility of program: Curricula in library science are relatively inflexible. This is a result of both specialization in program and of program accreditation by the American Librarian Association.

Business

Accreditation has also played an important role in the content of professional preparation for business fields. In addition to having stated purposes set down by the AACSB for the curricula of business programs, the particular content is structured around specific distribution requirements. In attempts to fulfill the purpose of providing a broad education based on cross-disciplinary experience, the curricula as framed by accreditation standards of two business professions education may be described in relationship to the continua of the model used in this study (Conrad 1978) as follows:

1. Locus of learning: Classroom based instruction is the typical method of dispersal of knowledge and skills in both accounting and MBA programs. Few programs in either field of interest emphasize field work, although the use of the case study method in MBA programs is an attempt to learn the knowledge and sills of the

profession through simulated experiential instruction. Still, business programs utilize traditional classroom instruction as the typical mode. Again, there may be some difference in opinion or judgment here. For example, the practice of accounting is very similar to the experience obtained in some practical accounting classes; however, this class work would not be considered as experiential under the operational definition.

2. Curriculum content: At the baccalaureate level (accounting), 40 percent of the upper-division course work is devoted to studies in business administration and economics (AACSB 1983-84). This is best described as a breadth emphasis, since further accreditation guidelines suggest that between 15-25 percent of the remaining curriculum be devoted to courses in the discipline of accounting. The remainder of the curriculum of the upper division is to be devoted to courses in business administration with special relation to the needs of accounting (AACSB 1983-84). In general, students do not enter business courses until they have completed their general education, lower-division course work. Further indication of the breadth emphasis of this preparation for MBA students is that 67 percent of the course work must be from the "common body of knowledge" (p.27). One-half of the remainder should be devoted to a specialty. Again, the meaning of breadth versus depth is a contextual matter involving somewhat arbitrary judgments.
3. Design of program: Faculty control the content of business curricula in terms of fulfilling accreditation standards. As in library science, students wishing to develop an expertise not directly falling under business are encouraged to take other master's work.

4. Flexibility of program: Curricula in business education is described more as required than as contractual or student determined; less than 15 percent of a total program either in accounting or for an MBA can be described as elective in nature.

Figure 3 presents a summary of the criteria and evidence for placement of each occupation along the continua of the Conrad model.

[INSERT FIG. 3 ABOUT HERE]

Summary

It is against these generalized descriptions of professions education that the information obtained in this study was measured. Figure 4 presents these descriptions. The curricula of graduate programs in Higher Education are described in terms of the four continua of the Conrad model (1978) compared to curricula of selected professions education, and then Higher Education is placed along the continuum of professionalization.

[INSERT FIG. 4 ABOUT HERE]

Continua of Conrad Model

Occupations	Locus of Learning	Breadth vs. Depth	Design of Program	Flexibility of Program
Medicine	Criteria: Percentage of classroom/lab experience under supervision vs. that of independent field work.	Criteria: Percentage of course distribution of basic sciences vs. options.	Criteria: Amount of program left to student determination.	Criteria: Amount of coursework open to student determination.
	Evidence: Curricula as described by AMA.	Evidence: Curricula as described by AMA.	Evidence: Curricula as described by AMA.	Evidence: Curricula as described by AMA.
Law	Criteria: Percentage of classroom experience vs. field work.	Criteria: Percentage of distribution of basic vs. specialization coursework.	Criteria: Amount of program hours designed by student.	Criteria: Amount of coursework actually open to student determination.
	Evidence: Curricula as described in catalogs.	Evidence: Curricula as described in catalogs.	Evidence: Curricula as described in catalogs.	Evidence: Curricula as described in catalogs.
Library Science	Criteria: Percentage of classroom/demonstration vs. field work experience.	Criteria: Percentage of distribution of survey coursework vs. specialization.	Criteria: Amount of program hours designed by students.	Criteria: Amount of coursework actually open to student determination.

Figure 3. Criteria and Evidence for Placement of Various Occupations Along Continua.

Figure 3, continued

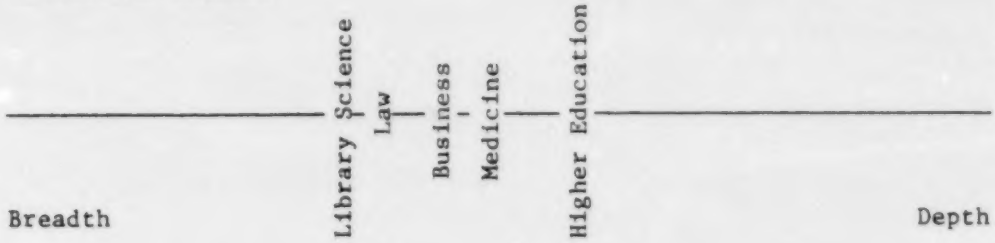
Continua of Conrad Model

Occupations	Locus of Learning	Breadth vs. Depth	Design of Program	Flexibility of Program
Library Science (continued)	Evidence: Curricula as described by librarians and in catalogs.	Evidence: Curricula as described by librarians and in catalogs.	Evidence: Curricula as described by librarians and in catalogs.	Evidence: Curricula as described by librarians and in catalogs.
Business	Criteria: Percentage of classroom vs. field work experience.	Criteria: Percentage of distribution of survey vs. specialization coursework.	Criteria: Amount of program hours designed by student.	Criteria: Amount of coursework open to student determination.
	Evidence: Curricula as described in AACSB accreditation guidelines.	Evidence: Curricula as described in AACSB accreditation guidelines.	Evidence: Curricula as described in AACSB accreditation guidelines.	Evidence: Curricula as described in AACSB accreditation guidelines.
Higher Education	Criteria: Percentage of coursework in classroom vs. experiential setting.	Criteria: Percentage of course distribution of survey vs. specialized.	Criteria: Amount of program left to student determination.	Criteria: Amount of coursework open to student determination.
	Evidence: Programs as described by student transcripts.	Evidence: Programs as described by student transcripts.	Evidence: Programs as described by student transcripts.	Evidence: Programs as described by student transcripts.

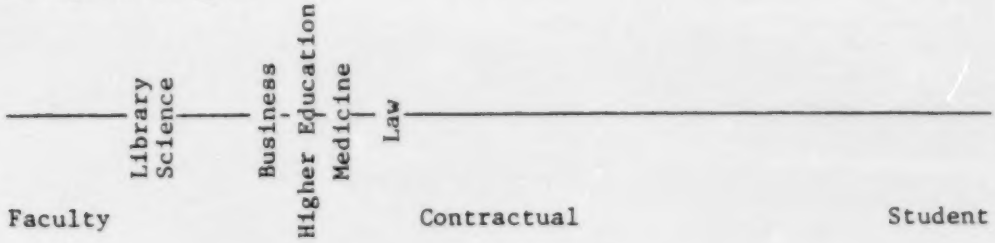
Conrad Continua of Model

1. Locus of Learning

2. Curriculum Content



3. Design of Program



4. Flexibility of Program

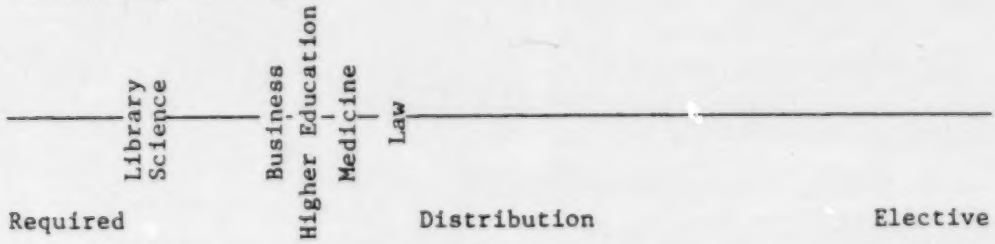


Figure 4. Dispersal of Knowledge and Skills of Various Professions Education.

The Continuuum of Professionalization

Such placements along the continua of the Conrad model are arbitrary, based on estimates drawn from the literature. So too, then, is the placement of these various occupations along a continuum of professionalization although the decisions are more literature based than the previous placements. Assuming law and medicine to be the most professionalized, the occupations may be placed along a continuum of professionalization as illustrated in Figure 5.

Figure 5. Placement of Various Occupations on a Continuum of Professionalization

The Professionalization of Higher Education

Higher Education has adopted many of the trappings of a profession: it has developed journals and scholarly societies; entrance into professional ranks is somewhat limited and regulated by the faculty through control of degrees awarded; members practice their skills and knowledge in a service perspective. Higher Education professionals, like many occupational members, have patterned their profession and its activities after the so-called mature professions (Hughes 1963, Vollmer and Mills 1966). And while practicing unique skills and knowledge in a service perspective is often cited as the distinction of a profession over an occupation, practicing the trappings of a profession may be no less important. In this regard, many authors would see Higher Education as having obtained a high degree of professionalization.

Yet, notwithstanding the caveats noted the author holds that Higher Education can be viewed as having obtained a degree of professionalization based on the presence of unique skills and knowledge.

One purpose of this study was to describe the characteristics of the curricula of graduate programs in Higher Education for the purpose of establishing criteria upon which to measure the professionalization of the field. The author has concluded that unique skills and knowledge of a profession can be described by its curriculum through which they are dispersed. This curriculum, as identified in this study, consists of a core of courses consistently manifesting itself in Higher Education programs surveyed. This conclusion reaffirms similar findings of other, earlier studies (Dressel and Mayhew 1974, Basil 1980, Nelson and Crosson 1984).

Assuming that consistent course offernings or persistence of courses can be used to measure maturity in a field, it is also concluded from this study that Higher Education has matured, moving along the continuum of professionalization. And when combined with other measures of professionalization as discussed above, the placement of Higher Education along a continuum of professionalization towards the positions occupied by the mature professions can be justified. Higher Education can be placed at least as far along as library science and business. Further, in some ways Higher Education has achieved a maturity in terms of certain curricula characteristics as described by the Conrad model that places its position relatively closer to those of the more mature professions of law and medicine than those of business and library science.

However, since business as examined in this study was actually descriptions of two specialties, one undergraduate, one graduate, a higher concentration of hours as specialization was reflected than was the case in

Higher Education. Since this concentration is not found in Higher Education curricula, Higher Education is placed below the position of business in achieving professionalization in terms of the balance within the curriculum. Additionally, since the element of service was not measured in this study, and although the literature acknowledges the service orientation of Higher Education but not that of business, Higher Education may be placed between the emerging professions that mature in a relatistic way. Accordingly, it seems justifiable to place higher Education along the continuum of professionalization distant from the more mature professions of law and medicine and between the emerging professions of library science and business.

Figure 6 presents the relative placements of occupations along the continuum of professionalization.

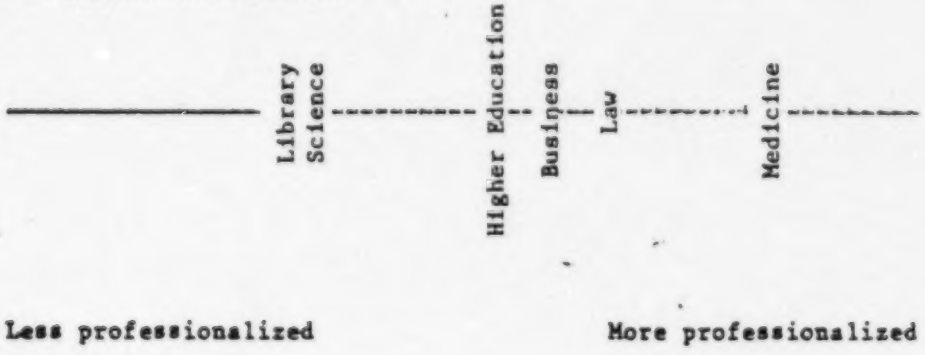


Figure 6 Placement of Various Occuptions on a Continuum of Professionalization.

Recommendations for Further Study

Although the data gathered and analyzed for this study allowed for addressing the research questions, several additional considerations and questions are derived as a result of the findings. These suggest the need for further research into the professionalization of Higher Education in

particular and into the criteria used to establish and measure professionalization in genereral.

The conclusions reached in this study about the profession of Higher Education in terms of the maturity of its curriculum vis-a-vis other professions would b emore valid if course-taking behaviour as described in the other professions education cited in this study could be compared to course-taking behavior in Higher Education. In turn, conclusions based on direct relationships between curriculum structure and course-taking behavior could be described. It may be the case that in the more mature professions, course-taking behavior would more closely parallel program requirements than occurs in business, library science, or Higher Education.

Another area of further study suggested by this research is examining the nature of those skills and knowledge unique to Higher Education and a description of the perspective of those skills and knowledge. It has been suggested that much of the unique knowledge held by the professions is general, natural knowledge, knowable by anyone (Goode 1960). It would be fruitful to examine the knowledge as dispersed through coursework in Higher Education to determine the extent of inclusion of such natural knowledge. Is Higher Education's knowledge unique or is it merely a perspective on general, natural knowledge as suggested by some of the literature? Perhaps the key to attaining professional status is obtaining and maintaining a perspective on that natural knowledge rather than knowing specific skills or facts. Does Higher Education bring to its world of concerns a unique perspective? Is the perspective unique sufficiently to distinguish the occupation from other overlapping occupations?

This study examined the unique skills and knowledge of Higher Education programs in Type I (Dressel and Mayhew 1974) institutions only. Two other

studies have examined the curriculum of Higher Education across program types. In 1980 Basil described program characteristics as Type I and Type II Higher Education programs. Later, Nelson and Crosson surveyed nearly all the programs in Higher Education to describe the course held common in the curriculum (1984). It would be useful to apply the method of this study to other than Type I programs to determine if consistency and constancy also can be found in Type II, III, and IV programs.

Concluding Observation

One conclusion from this effort is most evident. Notwithstanding future challenges, Higher Education has begun to emerage as a profession in many senses of the word: it has adopted the trappings of a profession and clearly has some distinguishable knowledge upon which it defines its expertise. Its members undergo an education that has prepared them to address concerns with particular knowledge and skills developed through the curriculum of the professions education. If these skills and knowledge continue to help society deal with the problems associated with higher education, then the profession of Higher Education should find continued encouragement to maintain its status as a profession, to continue to carve out its "turf." Further examination of the curriculum of Higher Education professions education will be of assistance in this effort.

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